

SWEET BRIAR COLLEGE



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SWEET BRIAR COLLEGE



FACULTY PUBLICATIONS, PAPERS
AND ADDRESSES

1937-1938

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ARE THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES HELPING
THE YOUNG WOMAN TO FIND HER PLACE IN
THE PRESENT SOCIAL ORDER?

META GLASS

President of Sweet Briar College

An address delivered before the High School Conference at the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, November 5, 1937.

It is an exceedingly difficult task to tell whether schools are fitting persons for their roles in the present social order. In the first place there is not agreement on what is intrinsic and what is accidental in society; nor on what is the individual's place in society; nor on how much influence schools have in any final position an individual may take. If we consider young women, we must add to this a long standing belief, or supposition if you prefer to call it so, that women have a special place in society and we have a question so large and so vague that it is only possible to posit some characteristics for both society and women and tell in a tendential way whether schools are moving in that direction—a qualitative analysis of their work with only inaccurate quantitative indications. And yet the task seems worth trying that we may know what to emphasize, what to drop, a little better in what proportion to combine and, above all, how to approach what we do, that its validity may not be negated by poor achievement.

What is a young woman's place in present-day society? First we recognize her as a thinking, feeling, acting individual, with the same need for clear, disciplined, effective thinking as men have. There are large areas in which men and women are alike, practically exactly alike, and this is an likeness which I see more and more as I grow older. The areas in which they differ are narrow and sufficiently marked for us to be almost able to entrust to natural promptings their special cultivation. The same need is true, of course, with regard to feeling. We have always known the swaying power of feeling, but in the present day more people seem to be coming nearer to understanding its springs, its subtleties, and some of the methods of consciously cultivating and disciplining emotional power. Then we can never forget that all of us are constantly acting either with clear thinking and discriminated emotion or without them.

All this is entirely obvious and has been always true, but it is so fundamental and so easily forgotten in the concern with shifting values, with the self-conscious magnifying of one's own time, that it

is wise to remind ourselves when we approach today that in only a very limited sense is it not yesterday or tomorrow. A young woman's place in present-day society is essentially that of the thinking, feeling, acting individual.

But also she has, from many and complex causes, a special affiliation for human relations. Of course she has the same range of human relations that every one has, but she is apt to be discerning, sensitive to shades of significance, congenial to this field rather than irked by it, and, in the same proportion especially useful to society in developing right relations in this area. She has the chance to be as unthinking, as emotionally undisciplined, as spasmodic in action, here as anywhere else in her life, and, to the degree that she so behaves, she is marring what might be a particular contribution to present-day society.

We all recognize ours as a day marked by confusing relationships. What is the proper relationship of children to their parents, of grown sons and daughters to their older parents, of married couples to each other on a social and economic basis that is shifting visibly? What is the just and productive relationship between householders and their servants, between them and tradespeople, even between them and delivery boys? The proper relationship has rarely been better described than by saying "The arch sin against my brother is to use him as a thing; for he is a person." The application of that viewpoint, supplemented with as much understanding as possible of the complications and implications of dealing with persons as independent personalities, is rich investment for society in a young woman's education.

I have started with her more intimate relationships, but human relations extend for her today into municipal, or rural, state and national spheres. Women do less with the conquest of nature and the securing of natural resources for human use. They do not mine coal or work steel, nor build railways, tunnels, bridges and houses, nor dam streams and purvey electricity. They work less with things than with people, and have more time as well as greater congeniality for the cultivation of human relations. This should be capitalized for society's sake in municipal and public housekeeping, in the solution of social, educational and political problems.

Plainly society cannot entrust to women these highly important tasks which they might do particularly well, unless women are given all possible knowledge and understanding that would produce wisdom in doing the tasks. Human relationships do not exist in a vacuum; they arise in connection with our conquest of nature; in all of the reaches of science and work; in the progress of civilization; in the discernment of the goal toward which it travels. The difficulty about

solutions that women can give to problems of human relations has up to now largely been that, realizing this congeniality of approach, we have been content to rely too far upon it, tried to use it as a sort of an uncanny sixth sense, and realized only low productive use of it. It takes broad education to ballast it, but so ballasted it is too valuable for society to forego.

There is another thing that we must remember about young women. They are purveyors of happiness or misery at high temperature, both dangerous explosives. As much as can be learned about the deep sources of happiness and its obverse, misery, belongs in a young woman's education. Right human relations, of course, underlie it. This is true for herself and for the persons who know their dependence upon her. We are all familiar with the investigations that show crippled personnel adjustments in industry and business and consequent economic difficulties that strikingly accompany, if they are not solely produced by, unhappy domestic relations. For the sake of other people young women should be led to recognize how far their own emotional adjustments ramify, and early learn to go far beyond personal happiness at a given moment as a sufficient guide to action. In proportion as their influence is great so is their responsibility here.

For her own sake as well as for that of others a young woman should have an understanding not only of the sources of happiness in human relations, but other sources from which she may draw and to which she may direct others. Many of these we have noticeably neglected in the last generation and they need to be emphasized and developed. Joy in work well done is one of the most easily tapped sources of the raw material of happiness and it yields a quiet steady supply. Whatever can be done in education to reveal this abundance to students is good education. There has been such eagerness to improve, speed up, depersonalize work that we have lost, along with much poor, back-breaking, dulling drudgery, the realization of intrinsic quality that can redeem work. Much of our mechanical routine will yield little of it. There is less chance for genuine satisfaction in holding a shoe for a machine to clamp on its sole than in designing, cutting, moulding, fitting that same sole to the shoe by hand. This, of course, does not mean we must cast aside shoe-making machinery and return to hand cobbling. It does mean that education must now consciously arouse in persons the value of quality, which the nature of the task used to arouse. A vacuum cleaner has in it fewer back-aches than a broom handle, and I am no enthusiast for back-aches, but I have followed the latest model of a vacuum cleaner when the results showed that the attitude had been "Step on it. All of the dirt that doesn't

hurry out from the corners and from behind table legs will get left." There is no happiness in such work and the easier task has not added as much as it should to life's pleasures. A sense of the real beauty of machinery, its precision, its delicate adjustments, its need for smoothness in its relations of part to part, can lift a lifeless tool to a highly prized helper. Watch the way one clerk works the mimeograph and then comments: "I don't know what in the world is the matter with this old thing," or the way someone joyously abuses a new automobile, forcing it, outraging every law of its working that is not protected by fool-proof sealing, and we can realize how much is to be learned to make a person the master and the friend of machinery. We women have long known in a vague way that a sewing machine is as temperamental as ourselves. We are on the verge—and sadly in need—of knowing what makes us both like that. In making things there is a partnership with machinery that is only a few steps behind the attitude that makes work a real creation. The product may not be destined for a museum; in fact, it may be consumed at the next meal, but the satisfaction in its excellence is a sort of daily bread-and-butter happiness.

Of a keener, more far-reaching kind is the happiness to be got from designing and making things of recognized beauty. A young woman should know the inherent satisfaction in seeing appreciatively tapestry, painting, sculpture; and the larger satisfaction of doing these things herself acceptably-to-excellently. In revolt against an era of bad taste and poor workmanship which at its worst prompted young women to cover small jugs with putty and bits of colored glass, we characteristically fled in the opposite direction and grew afraid of suggesting artistic expression to any but an already proved genius, and of her we grew suspicious. If artistic creation produces no more than an encounter with the permanent values of aesthetic principles and some appreciation of the problems to be met, it will still have made a person whose capacity for pleasure in looking upon good work is greater than it would have been without the trials. From a plane of general artistic appreciation and some competence rise the peaks of fine performance.

What I have said of the plastic arts is true of music, whether we listen to it or perform it or compose it. Music and the other arts belong in education for men as well as for women and in the present social order their value is high. They have in them the ballast against our screaming faults from over-emphasis in opposite directions. And more than this, they with poetry and to a lesser degree the dance, have quality that made the ancients early recognize the bard as the seer.

They have a directness to the core of reality and can from this deep source inform all living, which is the real function of art, and produce a rare kind of happiness even in the realm of tragedy.

So far I have said nothing about making a living either by money wages or by wages in kind. To find her place in the present social order a young woman has to realize that she must be able to do worthwhile work in the world. Look for a moment, however, at the kind of young woman we have been educating; one who has learned the necessity of thinking clearly and something of how to do it, who recognizes the dynamo of emotions of which she is in charge and something of how to control it, who knows the deep-lying importance of correct human relationships—yes even to the casual delivery boy—and who understands the value of quality in work and the revivifying outlets in creative work. Then grant that she is a young woman and must expect to learn any particular job by bringing all these assets to play in dead earnest upon learning the needed technique in good old apprentice fashion without the apprentice abuses. Would you hesitate to employ such a young woman for any job open to the young? Particular skills are being almost daily refined and becoming more demanding or being discarded for others. Men and women alike must master them where they are needed, but with mastery they must also maintain always a readiness to modify or advance skills, lest they be out-moded and discarded. Even stenography, that Golden Gate to a job for the young woman, bids fair not to be so necessary as it once was, in the period of the stenotype and dictaphones. What young women need for special jobs in the present social order is the firm conviction that what the job demands they must get and then keep it up to date.

Now how can the school fit a person for her place? Primarily by guiding into knowledge of the physical world in which we live; of the organic nature of the society of man which should come from an acquaintance with his efforts and failures from the primitive times, beloved of anthropology, to the era of New Deals of one kind or another wherever governments have developed; by guiding into knowledge of our own nature, in its religious, aesthetic, reasoning and physical reaches; and in this guiding by developing an ability to think, to feel, to act harmoniously toward a goal. We would have the young woman recognize and accept her role of cooperation in an organic and interdependent society—have a large share of the good old responsibility on which a satisfactory life is grounded. She must recognize always the need all her life long of continuing to learn, consciously seeking new enlightenment and knowledge in the face of new problems,

and old ones too for that matter. She must have resourcefulness in the face of change. And she must periodically, beginning in her school days but by no means ending there, find the meaningfulness in her life that affords the conviction necessary for motive power. This means that she must have a tenable hypothesis of what life means and the relation of her life to other life, for without such a view it is too difficult for anyone to live vigorously and effectively. She should also realize that her hypothesis will, we trust gradually, change as life goes on in minor and major respects and she should be ready to welcome such change. This calls for a nice balance between acting on conviction and letting conviction modify itself in the face of new facts, but then living is the maintenance of a nice balance from the physical spheres right on to the highest spiritual reaches. A young woman should know this, and know it early.

This guiding into knowledge in the schools can be promoted and hindered in countless ways. In this group, busy day by day in finding the good ways and discarding the poor ways, I shall not attempt any detailed prescription for even one complete good way—and there is always more than one way in any man-arranged matter.

There are a few points on which I venture suggestions. For the young, and the younger the more necessarily, the guides must seem to know the way, to understand, to live by what they say is good. It is our burden and at the same time our chance for the greatest satisfaction that we shall ever get out of our work, that we are of real importance in the success of a school. And yet, the teacher is not all. Everyone of us can remember learning to our own satisfaction and profit things that have stayed with us through the years under a teacher who did so many things wrong that by rights we should have learned nothing. This is testimony to the compelling power of knowledge. Knowledge is something we minister to—we do not create it. I was late in feeling the appeal of poetry and getting an insight into its power. It all came alive to me in my first graduate study one summer under a man who read much of it aloud to us in a low mumbling unpleasant voice and who used an awkward gesture in place of any interpretation. Such conditions would not have achieved it for me when I was younger. As we grow older it becomes easier to recognize as significant truth when uttered by a person who neither really values it nor practices it. This, however, is not a goal of good teaching. These things that the young woman must do we teachers must do, and constantly re-do in the face of our own living to be effective guides.

The all-important cultivation of attitudes, the most permanent

part of an education, results from the nature of knowledge itself, the way it is presented, the values shown in it, and upon illustrative action. The school life is an unseamed part of all the rest of life. School activity that throws the emphasis where teaching throws the emphasis is also good teaching. But here there is a caution needed. We are beginning to realize that even big mechanical plants which deal only with things, cannot successfully put too much under one administrative group. It is in the things that one naturally does in school that the knowledge and attitudes and the ideals that emerge from teaching should be made to prevail. But there are many other educational agencies than the schools and I, for one, am all in favor of leaving to them what they can do especially well and even helping them to do half-way jobs better, rather than drawing under the aegis of the school every activity that is recognized as educative. The school becomes top-heavy. It takes over this and that because it seems to be neglected or poorly done. There is a very good chance that when so much is taken over it will likewise be poorly done in the school. It seems to me a sounder way to lead intelligent, thinking, disciplined young persons into activities organized or unorganized outside the school, to accustom them to taking part in the things that will go on for them after school years, with a sense of responsibility to make the outside and continuing agency do its best work. Wherever an already organized agency, even if its conditions are not as ideal as we would have them (Would our own be any nearer?), exists for activity illustrative of right living, I should encourage students to make use of that agency, with discernment and courage to contribute to its efficiency rather than set up another in school. Throw students with quickened perceptions and awakened responsibility back upon their homes, the church, civic life, the Girl Scouts, Home Demonstration, and other interest clubs with courage and a willingness to tackle a stiff problem and society will be the gainer as well as the young person whose achievement here has for her a reality not so recognizable in a school promoted set-up.

The attitude of the school toward such agencies should, I believe, be one of thankfulness that these agencies exist to help cover a field too great for the school alone; a generous recognition of good work and special fitness at so many points and of a strategic position for continuation; a hearty cooperation by sending them young members informed, disciplined, and awakened by the school's more concentrated training. This seems to me the most effective way of fitting young women, or young men either, for their place in the present social order.

I have made no distinction between the secondary and college periods. Not many distinctions need to be made, I believe, in the general picture I have drawn. College training ought to go deeper and so, when the absolutely necessary tools of further knowledge have been safeguarded in the program of the secondary school, I think the secondary school can go over a wider area, touch the many things all persons ought to be conscious of, open many doors at least a crack, and leave to the college upper stages of specific fields of knowledge, even the first glimpse of such fields as psychology and philosophy except as this knowledge informs other approaches. It must also look to the college for increasing the sense of the oneness of knowledge and facility in making correlations—and to the colleges and technical schools to furnish instruction in specific skills, except here and there in a rudimentary form.

If the college, or for that matter the school, is residential there must be in the school more chance for illustrative activity, but even here to take part in an outside activity is better than to organize a parallel. When the school is in a city like a public high school, the set-up of illustrative activities in school can be cut to a minimum and the energy necessary for their conduct put upon sending promising members into outside organizations.

Are the schools and colleges helping the young woman to find her place in the present social order? Some are and some are not. All, even the best, are only approaching what they could do. In so far as they are stressing the ephemeral and shifting, the immediate techniques for a particular job without a sense of abiding principles and changing techniques, in so far as they are falling in with false and undesirable emphases in our present-day society instead of showing how to right them—they are not helping to fit young persons for their places. In so far as they guide into knowledge, developing powers of thinking, understanding one's self and the world, and into control of emotions with skill in human relations, a respect for and an acquaintance with roads to happiness for self and others—in so far are they helping. Helping is a good word, because the school must ever remember how many other agencies can and do also help.

We teachers need courage and insight gained through constant study and trial of the better way, and a conscious effort to make the values we proclaim prevail in our own lives. That is far enough to go. The student must see and know but, after all, she must be free to reject and find a better way; or reject and fail. That is her inalienable right.

THE INFLUENCE OF JEFFERSON ON MODERN EDUCATION

DABNEY S. LANCASTER

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Sweet Briar College

An address delivered before the Education Section of the Virginia Academy of Science at Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Virginia, May 6, 1938.

Time does not permit consideration of Jefferson's varied interests and his record of accomplishment as lawyer, statesman, scientist, architect, agriculturalist, musician and inventor. We must be content today with a brief study of his field of major interest—education.

In a letter to his friend and co-worker, Joseph Carrington Cabell, he wrote, "A system of general instruction which shall reach every description of our citizens, from the richest to the poorest, as it was the earliest, so will it be the latest of all the public concerns in which I shall permit myself to take an interest."

Just what was the educational situation in this country when in 1779 Jefferson presented his plan for a system of free schools in Virginia? There had been, of course, some common school development in New England and elsewhere, and a few colleges were reaching a relatively small number of students. In Virginia there were private academies, and the College of William and Mary in the field of higher education. A glance at the curriculum of this college in those early days will reveal the situation at the time and will show clearly just why Jefferson was dissatisfied with conditions.

In 1776 a committee was appointed to amend the constitution of William and Mary College. Jefferson was a member of this committee. After reviewing the history of the college, he described the organization as follows: "One school of sacred theology, with two professors therein, to wit, one for teaching the Hebrew tongue and expounding the Holy Scriptures; and the other for explaining the commonplaces of divinity and the controversies with heretics; one other school for philosophy, with two professorships therein, to wit, one for the study of rhetoric, logic, and ethics, and the other for physics, metaphysics, and mathematics; one other school for teaching the Latin and Greek tongues; and one other for teaching Indian boys reading, writing, vulgar arithmetic, the catechism, and the principles of the Christian religion."

No wonder that Jefferson felt the need of vitalizing the work of

the college! This curriculum was scarcely in keeping with his ideas of training leadership for the new nation.

Jefferson's recommendation which followed may be summarized in the couplet from Pope:

"Know thou thyself, presume not God to scan;
The proper study of mankind is man."

Jefferson's proposals for the modification of this ancient scholastic curriculum represent the first modern ideas which began at Williamsburg to flow into American academic life.

Jefferson proposed two additional professorships, eight in all. They were to be assigned as follows: (1) Moral philosophy, the laws of nature and of nations, and the fine arts; (2) Law and police, including economics, politics and commerce; (3) History, civil and ecclesiastical; (4) Mathematics; (5) Anatomy and medicine; (6) Natural philosophy and natural history; (7) Ancient languages including Oriental (Hebrew, Chaldee, Syrian) and northern tongues (Moeso-Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, Old Icelandic); (8) Modern languages. Thus it is seen how he introduced the social sciences, the natural sciences, modern languages and professional studies.

As for the Indians and their department, he proposed that a missionary be appointed who should visit the tribes and "investigate their laws, customs, religions, traditions and languages, constructing grammars thereof, and copious vocabularies. The materials collected to be deposited in the college library."

Jefferson's service on this committee increased his determination to lay the groundwork for a complete system of public education for his state. In 1779 he introduced his bill for the establishment of a public school system in Virginia.

In the preamble Jefferson stressed education as the bulwark of a democratic form of government; careful selection of those best fitted for training; and education at public expense. These were revolutionary doctrines at that time. He proposed in great detail the division of each county into "hundreds" with a common school for each "hundred." There were to be three aldermen for each county elected by the people, who should establish the schools and appoint an "overseer." (The counterpart of our modern school superintendent). He then proposed that from three to five counties be grouped as a grammar school (modern high school) district. For example, "the overseers of the counties of Botetourt, Rockbridge, Montgomery, Washington and Kentucky shall meet at Botetourt Court House. Those for Yohogania, Monongalia and Ohio shall meet at Monongalia Court House, etc."

The curricula proposed for these schools are interesting. "The 'hundreds' schools shall teach reading, writing and common arithmetick and the books used for instructing the children to read shall be such as will at the same time make them acquainted with Graecian, and Roman, English and American History."

All free children, male and female, resident within the respective hundred were to receive tuition gratis for a term of three years and as much longer at private expense as parents or guardians should think proper.

He emphasized the "tool" subjects, the "3r's," as of fundamental importance but felt also that the lessons of history should be stressed as a guide for the student throughout life.

At the grammar schools he proposed to have taught "the Latin and Greek languages, English Grammar, Geography and the higher part of numerical arithmetick, to wit, vulgar and decimal fractions, and the extraction of the square and cube roots."

Note that in these schools Jefferson placed emphasis upon language and geography on the one hand, and mathematics on the other.

He suggested the most rigid selection of pupils: one only "of the most promising genius and virtue" to be sent annually from each of the lower schools to a grammar school; again one only each year from each of the grammar schools to receive further training there and then to be sent to the College of William and Mary for three years at public expense.

Jefferson believed in a simple and practical course of study, careful selection of those to be trained at public expense, and thorough supervision of instruction by well educated school officials.

His belief in the importance of a sound system of public education is evident from this statement, "Were it necessary to give up either the primary schools or the University, I would abandon the latter, because it is safer to have a whole people respectably enlightened than a few in a high state of science and the many in ignorance. This last is the most dangerous state in which a nation can be. The nations and governments of Europe are so many proofs of it."

Jefferson's plan for a system of public education did not materialize during his life time. The social system in the South did not lend itself to his plan. Large plantations where the owners employed private tutors for their own children could not well be divided into "hundreds" for school purposes and the large land owners were not enthusiastic about supporting schools for the less fortunate members of society.

Jefferson turned to the development of higher education. He hoped that, "with the opening of mountain sources of learning, the lower valleys and broadening plains of popular education would better flourish."

He felt that the common schools should be supported largely by local taxation and that the State should concentrate its support upon one state university. He was the first to advocate such concentration of support for higher education.

Jefferson's first intention was to build a state university upon the foundation already laid at the College of William and Mary. Largely because of that institution's long connection with the Episcopal Church, his proposal did not meet with favor and he soon made his plans for a new institution to be more centrally located and incidentally near his own home.

Professor de Vere of the University of Virginia, writing in *Harper's Magazine* in 1872, tells of a momentous meeting at which the fate of higher education in Virginia hung in the balance. "High up in the Blue Ridge . . . at a modest country inn, unpretending in appearance, but offering an abundant and well-served table, met a party of men remarkable for their ability and virtue. . . . In the low-ceiled, white-washed room, the whole furniture of which consisted of a dining room table and rude split-bottom chairs of home make, sat the President of the United States, Mr. Monroe, and two of his predecessors, Mr. Madison and Mr. Jefferson, besides a number of judges and eminent statesmen. Yet, it was remarked by one of the on-lookers, that Mr. Jefferson was the principal object of regard—the soul that animated the meeting."

At this meeting plans for the University were discussed and the matter of a suitable site was argued. Jefferson is said to have made a point for his neighborhood by exhibiting an imposing list of octogenarians living there. The question was mainly, however, one of finding the most central location. Here Jefferson is said to have made his position impregnable. He proved that his site was the correct one both geographically and because it was the center of white population. There was, however, some bantering criticism of his method of drawing his transverse lines in such a way that they intersected at Charlottesville. The point of departure of his westward line was the mouth of Chesapeake Bay which is much nearer the southern than the northern boundary of Virginia. He defended this by saying, "the greater part of what is north is water." He did not draw a north and south line of intersection. He found the Blue Ridge Mountains a natural

line of cross division! In a letter to Cabell he says, "Run your lines in whatever direction you please, they will pass close to Charlottesville!" And so the groundwork was laid.

A long struggle followed during which Jefferson advanced his ideas about higher education. He thus defined the objects of higher education: "To form the statesmen, legislators, and judges on whom public prosperity and individual happiness are so much to depend; to expound the principles of government, the laws which regulate the intercourse of nations, those formed municipally for our own government, and a sound spirit of legislation, which banishing all arbitrary and unnecessary restraint on individual action, shall leave us free to do whatever does not violate the equal rights of another; to harmonize and promote the interests of agriculture, manufactures and commerce, and by well-informed views of political economy to give a free scope to the public industry; to develop the reasoning faculties of our youth, enlarge their minds, cultivate their morals, and instill into them the precepts of virtue and order; to enlighten them with mathematical and physical sciences, which advance the arts and minister to the health, the subsistence, and the comforts of human life; and finally to form them to habits of reflexion and correct action, rendering them examples of virtue to others and of happiness within themselves. These are the objects of that higher education, the benefits and blessings of which the Legislature now proposes to provide for the good and ornament of their country, the gratification and happiness of their fellow-citizens!"

He has emphasized public service, sound mental training, a broadened interest, and character.

With regard to good teaching and the qualification of professors, Jefferson insisted upon the best. His wide acquaintance with distinguished men of learning in Europe had inspired him with high ideals of professional excellence. He wrote Cabell, "You know that we have from the beginning considered the high qualifications of the professors as the only means by which we could give to an institution splendor and preeminence. The only question we can ever ask ourselves, as to any candidate, will be, is he the most highly qualified? Other institutions have lost standing by indulging motives of favoritism and nepotism and friendship. A man is not qualified for a professorship, knowing nothing but merely his own profession. He should be otherwise well-educated; able to converse understandingly with scientific men, and to assist in the councils of the faculty on any subject, without this he will incur their contempt and bring disreputation on the institution."

Governor Nicholas, probably at the suggestion of Jefferson, wrote to a number of distinguished educators in other parts of the country seeking advice about the proposed state university. Thomas Cooper of Carlisle College, Pennsylvania, wrote as follows in regard to entrance requirements: "It should be scrupulously insisted that no youth can be admitted to the University unless he can read with facility Virgil, Horace, Xenophon and Homer; unless he is able to convert a page of English into Latin at sight, unless he can demonstrate any proposition at sight in the six first books of Euclid and shows an acquaintance with cubic and quadratic equations. Without this your university will become what all American colleges are, so far as I know them, mere grammar schools. You will have fewer students, but they will do credit to the institution and raise its reputation and entrance will be sought as an honor." Jefferson did not agree with these sentiments and for many years after Jefferson's death his university gave little or no attention to entrance requirements. He believed in an opportunity for all while maintaining the highest scholastic standards. John Stewart Bryan, now President of William and Mary College, writes that when he entered the University of Virginia in the eighties a student walked into the office, wrote his name and the name of his parent or guardian in a book, stated what he wanted to study, paid twenty-five dollars and was assigned a room. Later on the Chairman of the Faculty remarked that the candidate must be sixteen, white and wear pants.

Considering now Jefferson's ideas about the courses of study, we find again Dr. Cooper quoted by Jefferson in this way: "I am satisfied that a young man turned into the world a good classic and mathematician is far better qualified for any other literary pursuit than those who have been educated in any other way. On this score my mind is made up."

Jefferson's educational philosophy placed primary emphasis upon the inculcation of good morals and social progress.

Ethics occupied a prominent place. He proposed to place the entire responsibility for religious training on an ethical basis where all sects could agree. Jefferson had a plan for having the various sects establish separate schools of theology in the general neighborhood of the University. He says in one of his letters, "In our University there is no professor of divinity. A handle has been made of this to disseminate an idea that this is an institution, not merely of no religion, but against all religion. My idea is that by bringing the sects together and mixing them with the mass of other students we shall soften their asperities, liberalize and neutralize their prejudices, and make the general religion one of peace, reason and morality."

Jefferson took special pains to urge the cultivation of modern languages. He gave sound reasons for the study of French, Spanish, Italian and German, and emphasized Anglo-Saxon as of primary importance because of its relationship to our own tongue.

He recommended training in physical education, military, dancing, music and drawing, and says, "These innocent arts furnish amusement and happiness to those who, having time on their hands, might less inoffensively employ it. These may be left to accessory teachers who will be paid by the individuals employing them, the University providing apartments for their exercise."

The branches of learning as finally decided upon were as follows:

- I. Ancient Languages:
Latin, Greek, Hebrew
- II. Modern Languages:
French, Spanish, Italian, German, Anglo-Saxon
- III. Mathematics—Pure:
Algebra, Fluxions, Geometry (elementary, transcendental)
Architecture (military, naval)
- IV. Physico-Mathematics:
Mechanics, statics, dynamics, pneumatics, acoustics, optics,
astronomy, geography
- V. Physics, or natural philosophy:
Chemistry, mineralogy
- VI. Botany:
Zoology
- VII. Anatomy:
Medicine
- VIII. Government:
Political Economy, Law of nature and nations,
History, being interwoven with politics and law
- IX. Law, municipal
- X. Ideology:
General Grammar, Ethics, Rhetoric, Literature and the
Fine Arts.

This was a far cry from the old curriculum at William and Mary College.

While Jefferson believed in leaving the matter of text books and references to the individual professors, he writes to Cabell, the legislator, "there is one branch in which we are the best judges, it is that of government. It is our duty to guard against unsound principles

being disseminated among our youth." He then recommended as texts (1) Sidney's Discourses and Locke's Essay on Civil Government; (2) The Declaration of Independence; (3) The Federalist; (4) The Virginia Document of 1799; (5) The Inaugural Speech and Farewell Address of George Washington.

Jefferson's views on the teaching of history are of interest. Political history was to be taught in connection with the study of government; ancient history in connection with the study of ancient languages; modern history in connection with the study of modern languages. He says, "In all cases I prefer original authors to compilers."

Having set up his program of studies, Jefferson put into practice his views on the elective system. He says, "I am not fully informed of the practices at Harvard, but there is one from which we shall vary although it has been copied by nearly every college in the United States. That is the holding of the students to one prescribed course of reading and disallowing exclusive application to those branches only which are to qualify them for the particular vocations to which they are destined. We shall allow them uncontrolled choice in the lectures they shall choose to attend and require elementary qualifications only and sufficient age. Our institution will proceed on the principle of doing all the good it can without consulting its own pride or ambition."

In regard to the government and discipline of the students, Jefferson says, "The best mode of government for youth in large collections is certainly a desideratum not yet attained. It may be well questioned whether fear, after a certain age, is a motive to which we should have recourse. The affectionate deportment between father and son offers the best example for that of tutor and pupil. A police exercised by the students themselves has been tried with success in some countries."

Jefferson, of course, did not originate all of his ideas about education. His European contacts during his long residence there, his conversations with distinguished scholars throughout his public career stimulated his thinking and he never hesitated to express his views. He had boundless faith in the ordinary individual, if trained, and his individualistic ideas are evident today at his university.

What then has Jefferson contributed to the education of today? He is either responsible for or has reemphasized the importance of many of our educational philosophies and practices of this day and time.

1. Common school education at public expense, as the bulwark of free government.

2. Adequate supervision of public school affairs and of teaching.
3. Co-education—he proposed three years of schooling free for boys and girls.
4. Careful selection of students for training at public expense.
5. Separation of Church and State—no sectarian teaching in colleges publicly supported.
6. Well qualified teachers.
7. The division of higher training into schools.
8. The value of the Social Sciences—history and government.
9. Modern languages.
10. Scientific studies.
11. Professional studies.
12. Physical Education, military training, etc.
13. Industrial and vocational training in special schools.
14. The elective system and an opportunity for everyone to select his own course.
15. Student self government.

Most of these principles are part and parcel of our educational system. It is hard for us to realize how revolutionary they seemed in his day. In some respects we perhaps would have profited by adhering more closely to Jefferson's recommendations—notably in regard to the more careful selection of students to be promoted and educated further at public expense in the high schools and freedom from narrow requirements as to courses and credits.

It is interesting to note that Jefferson urges the study of original authors and warns against compilers. In a recent article in *Harper's Magazine* by Robert Maynard Hutchins we find this statement, "A classic is a book that is contemporary in every age. That is why it is a classic. The conversations of Socrates raise questions that are as urgent today as they were when Plato wrote. In fact they are more so, because the society in which Plato lived did not need to have them raised as much as we do. Of course, the modern student may have heard of these writings or at least of their authors. But this knowledge is gained in general through text books, and text books have probably done as much to degrade the American intelligence as any single force. If the student should know about Cicero, Milton, Galileo or Adam Smith, why should he not read what they wrote?" President Hutchins is urging the same point that Mr. Jefferson stressed more than a century ago. This article by President Hutchins, deals with the curriculum for the first two years in colleges of Arts and

Sciences. He pleads for the elimination of non-essential and highly specialized subjects and concentration upon the proper use of English, the classics and mathematics, and for the study of original authors and not compilers. The influence of Jefferson is clearly seen.

I close with a quotation from the address of Walter Lippman delivered at the Tercentenary of Harvard University in September, 1936. It might well have come from the pen of Jefferson.

"The Universities, like the churches and all other fellowships devoted to the highest concerns of mankind, are the repositories of the abiding purposes and interests of men. They have a more ancient title than any government to define the human destiny; they draw upon the deepest allegiance of civilized man, and the conscience which they inform will in the end judge—it will not be judged by—the policies of States. In the final recording the question will not be whether the Universities have served the contemporary purposes of States and of the partisans within them. It will be whether States have been loyal to that great tradition of order actuated by the love of truth of which the Universities are the appointed guardians."

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SOME MEDICAL PROBLEMS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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Paper read at the annual conference of the Virginia Association of Health and Physical Education at Virginia Military Institute, Lexington, Virginia, March 19, 1938.

The physical education profession is often held responsible, not only for physical disabilities which develop during participation in sports, but also for those which occur long after the player has put away his sport equipment. There is much good evidence that the casualties of sport are very real. Exercise has dangers as well as benefits. It behooves the physical education profession, therefore, to supervise all activities carefully, to err on the side of conservatism, and to assume that strenuous exercise may result in later difficulties. You are doubtless familiar with some of the ills said, with or without evidence, to arise from participation in such sports as basketball, hockey, tennis, dancing, rowing, track, football, and boxing. Heart trouble undoubtedly leads the list which includes various disorders of the joints and muscles (charleyhorse, muscle tears, and muscle cramps); injuries to the central nervous system ("punch-drunkenness"); and in the case of girls, menstrual difficulties—pain, irregularity, leukorrhea, and even sterility.

Since such criticisms are made, what are some of the precautions we can take to eliminate or decrease really harmful results to the participants, and in turn protect the profession from unwarranted criticism? Safety measures which will tend to do away with many of these commonly criticized conditions, divide themselves into three groups. First, there are those which will determine the physical fitness of a participant to engage in any particular activity; second, those taken during a playing season to determine whether or not any harmful effects are resulting from participation; and third, those taken to make the activity itself as safe as possible.

Unquestionably an adequate medical examination is essential. This includes more than a casual visit to the doctor's office—or a phone call to the effect that "Mary (or John) wants to play basketball and has never been ill—so please send a note saying she may play." The minimum essentials of an adequate investigation include an examination of the nose, throat, thyroid, auscultation of the heart and lungs; determination of the blood pressure, pulse, and weight; examination of the

urine; and in the case of girls, a notation about menstrual regularity or abnormalities. Ideally this check-up should be made by a physician employed by the school and one who understands the situation. If this is not possible, it would be highly advisable that those in charge of the school program should discuss with the doctors who will make the examination the reasons for the requirements and their importance. Such a discussion can be very constructive and helpful to both sides. It should be possible for the physical educator to explain his objectives, his methods for supervision, and the aid which he hopes to obtain from the medical profession. It is suggested that wherever possible the physician should be urged to watch a practice and also a match game. Too frequently there is no regard for the type and degree of difficulty of an activity. The physician may think of the sport as very strenuous—Rowing brings up to his mind a four mile race, or Lacrosse means the game as played by college men—while in reality these sports as undertaken by high school or college girls are relatively moderate in demands on endurance. The reverse is also true, and there are many physicians who would be quite surprised to learn that dancing, as it is taught today in many places, ranks with the most demanding of endurance activities. To return to the question of the medical examination, the very least that should be acceptable is a written statement that Mary or John has been examined, and in the physician's opinion is capable of participation in strenuous physical activity. This is not an ideal solution of the problem but has to be accepted in some circumstances. It at least shifts the responsibility from the physical education profession to the medical—where it belongs.

To determine whether any harmful effects are resulting from participation, the following check-ups during the playing season are suggested. First, there should be a study of the weight curve. This is particularly important for the younger players. If the weight is not maintained, or increased, you should insist on a further examination by the physician before allowing the player to continue his practice. If balance scales are not available, it should be possible to obtain a pair of inexpensive bathroom scales which are better than nothing. It is then highly desirable to weigh players after practice and again at the beginning of the next practice. If the loss experienced during the playing period has not been regained, the player should be watched, and if this condition persists, a report should be made to the family and the physician. Second, a check should be made on the heart. Even though the original examination—including response to a period of measured exercise (deep knee bending, or stepping on and off a stool) has revealed no abnormalities, certain difficulties may appear

during participation. For this reason it is logical to have a check made during or after a practice period or game. One very simple but significant test consists in determining the pulse rate immediately after exercise and again after two or three minutes of rest. The rate, though normally rapid at first should drop rather quickly in a heart that is not being overtaxed by the activity. Pulse rate determinations can be made by the coach or nurse (a physician is not necessary) although the interpretations of the findings should be made by a doctor. "Heart tests" can be conducted without appreciably disrupting a practice period—and the results obtained may be the deciding factor in proving the inadvisability of the sport for certain students. The converse is also true. From my own point of view, I often permit a student to play basketball or hockey because of a normal reaction to activity and rest where I might otherwise, on the basis of the original examination, have been inclined to play safe and advise a less strenuous sport.

The third check-up has to do with signs of recent illness or injury. There is nothing to support the idea that strenuous exercise benefits such conditions, and ample proof from studies on both animals and man, that fatigue due to exercise increases the severity of the condition once infection has taken hold. Furthermore, there is the danger of spreading infections such as colds to other players. For these reasons, players showing signs of infection should be excluded temporarily from the squad. In case of injury, even though it appear minor, the responsibility for its care should not be assumed by the coach or nurse. The usual first aid practices should be administered if necessary, and the case referred to a physician. This suggestion is made in order to spare the physical education profession from criticism.

Frequent check-up of the player's feet should be made in order to prevent the occurrence and spread of "athlete's foot." The examination can be made by the coach. If the foot is free from cracks, blisters, or actual eruption there is no need for medical inspection. A case showing any of the above, however mild, should be referred to a doctor. This is true even for cracks between the toes. It may not be a case of "athlete's foot" but the crack is a potential avenue of entrance for infection and should be treated.

The fifth problem—that of menstruation—is a difficult one. Despite the prevalence of the idea among the laity of a casual relationship between strenuous exercise during the menstrual period, and subsequent menstrual disorders, there is a vast amount of physiological work on pulse, blood pressure, blood chemistry, reaction time, skill, strength and endurance which reveals only slight changes at that time. These

changes are no greater than those which occur spontaneously at other times. In other words, the machine is as fit as at other times. The British have for some time advocated continuance of activity throughout the period and their policy has been associated with a phenomenal reduction in the incident of dysmenorrhea. There is nothing in the endocrinology of the menstrual period which gives credence to the hypothesis that participation in exercise at that time affects the normal changes in the endometrium. It is admitted, however, that local views, the attitude of the parents, and convention may force conservatism. For this reason, the following policy is suggested; in the case of girls of high school age, no practice or competitive game during the first two days of the flow, and even the day preceding the period if the cycle is sufficiently regular to determine that day; in the case of older players, where the period is well established, regular and without pain, no limitation. For the protection of those in charge of the activity, a written permission from the parents may be advisable for the latter group. It is strongly urged, however, that effort should be made, even while following such a policy, to educate the girls and their mothers to the view that continuance of exercise during the period is a normal and perfectly physiological thing to do.

The precautions which should be taken in the conduct of the activity itself include first and foremost adequate equipment. It hardly seems necessary to stress the fact that playing fields should be free from holes, stakes, and rocks; that playing floors be free from splinters, and when used for social dancing as well as other activities should be treated to remove the slippery surface. If there are posts or corners which project near the playing space, these should be padded. Adequate foot gear is essential. This includes not only the shoes with appropriate soles, but also socks sufficiently long to prevent cramping of the toes, and of a hygroscopic material to allow for absorption of moisture. Shin guards for hockey and knee pads for basketball are examples of special equipment for special activities. Players who must wear glasses should have either heavy rimmed (such as tortoise shell) frames or preferably the small masks designed for this purpose. The cost of such masks is only \$1.75 and should be assumed by the school if the player is unable to obtain them. Such equipment is essential for basketball and volleyball. Ankle and knee supports may be indicated in certain cases, but players requiring these should be under medical supervision.

The length and frequency of practice periods should receive careful consideration. Some schools are very definitely limited in choice because of the necessity of sharing the playing space with other groups

or of renting the space. Under those circumstances there is often a tendency to too long practice periods. Shorter and more frequent periods with at least a day's interval between the last practice and a match game are desirable. It is hardly possible to say exactly how long the period should be—just one hour or two hours—because the age of the players, the length of the season, and the size of the squad have to be taken into consideration. It is very important that players be worked up to periods of play which are comparable in length to a quarter or half of a regular game. Too often the ordinary practice is so frequently interrupted for coaching purposes and players are so frequently substituted that the squad is not ready for a full game when the match games begin. It might be suggested at this point that so-called lead up games are desirable for the younger players, and much can be done by those teaching in high school and college in helping to introduce such games in the grade schools.

Some of the old ideas concerning "training and conditioning" and the use of training tables, are no longer tenable. As regards the diet, the points to stress may be summed up in the simple statements that the growing individual needs more protein than the adult; and that carbohydrates provide the most available source of energy which is essential during protracted or severe exercise. Exhaustion from the depletion of the stores of fuel can be prevented by the administration of carbohydrates before and during strenuous play. For this reason, the ingestion of a lump or two of sugar before play and during half time is more logical than the use of a lemon. Oranges provide sugar and a small amount of fluid but have to be taken in larger quantities than plain sugar in order to obtain equal benefits. Adequate rest is just as important as diet. It does not seem to be asking too much that members of the squad have seven to eight hours of sleep each night. Such a policy will result in greater ability on the part of the players and more important still, in the avoidance of undesirable effects of the activity on the players, and in a decrease in injuries. Occasionally, instances may be cited of accidents occurring early in the season, or early in any one game, but in the long run it is unquestionably true that injuries occur more frequently at the end of the season or game when coordination, alertness, and strength have been decreased by fatigue.

Every effort should be made to have players change into suitable clothing before and after playing, and if the facilities are available, to take a warm shower. It hardly seems necessary to mention the desirability of such practice. If bathing facilities cannot be had, a rub down with a rough towel provides a very good substitute for the

shower. Standing around without the addition of extra clothing such as sweat pants and shirts, or sitting on the ground between halves or after the game, may lead to chilling and should not be permitted.

One additional point might be suggested for players who in spite of adequate footwear develop blisters on the feet, and that is the use of tannic acid foot baths. These are for preventive and not curative purposes.

In conclusion, it must be admitted that even though all of the precautions which we have discussed are taken, there may be occasional injuries or undesirable results following participation in strenuous physical activities. However, it must also be admitted that a program incorporating these suggestions will go far toward providing safety for the players and in sparing the Physical Education profession from destructive criticism.

BOOKS, ARTICLES, PAPERS AND PUBLIC ADDRESSES BY
MEMBERS OF THE SWEET BRIAR COLLEGE FACULTY

1937-1938

BOOKS

DEVELIN, JOSEPH C., *The Story of an Irish Sept.* The Tuttle Publishing Co., Rutland, Vt., May, 1938. 135 pages.

This is the history of an Ulster sept, one of the component divisions of the Clan Owen, from the period of the clan's foundation in the Fifth Century A. D. to the time of the Confiscations of the Ulster Plantation in the first decade of the Seventeenth Century.

In the introduction are given the sources from which the material for writing this book was obtained and its general plan is outlined. The first chapter is concerned with the antecedents of the clan and the sept, the identity of the eponymous ancestor and the general history of the Clan Owen up to the middle of the Thirteenth Century. The second chapter contains the history of the sept to the time of the Confiscations, as it appears in the Irish annals and State Papers. The third chapter gives some information about individual members of the sept since the clan days. The appendix deals with such matters as the Milesian genealogical system, interpolations in the genealogies and the etymology of Irish surnames.

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SANFORD, EVA M., *The Mediterranean World in Ancient Times*, a college text-book in Ancient History to be published in June, 1938, by the Ronald Press, New York. (About 600 pages, 64 illustrations, 11 maps, price \$4.50). This is the first volume of a European History Series, edited by Professor Robert C. Binkley, Western Reserve University.

The arrangement of this book is planned to keep the history of the whole area of ancient civilization, Mediterranean, Mesopotamian,

and Iranian, in focus, with emphasis on the Mediterranean world and its relationship with neighboring peoples, especially in the Near East, where significant additions to our knowledge are constantly being made by current excavations and studies. Hence the time-honored division of Ancient History into three parts, the Orient, Greece, and Rome, has been discarded in favor of horizontal cross-sections which give a clearer view of time relations and of the interaction of different cultures. The chief divisions of the book are: City-state, Tribe, and Empire; Hellas, Persia, and the West; The Great Powers of the Hellenistic Age; The Roman Empire. The selection and treatment of topics has been determined largely by the interest and needs of students interested in general European history, without special classical training, by the new emphasis resulting from recent scholarly research, and by the lack of suitable outside reading for undergraduates in certain significant fields, which must therefore be supplied in the text if they are to be studied at all. The illustrations have been chosen in consultation with many authorities here and abroad, and preference has been given to materials in American museums, which the student may have opportunity to visit. Like the maps, which have been especially prepared for the book, the illustrations are closely integrated with the text.

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